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Acanthamoeba castellanii and Survive in
Amoebal Cysts for Three Weeks post
Infection

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1	Francisella tularensis type A Strains Cause the Rapid Encystment of Acanthamoeba
2	castellanii and Survive in Amoebal Cysts for Three Weeks post Infection
3	Sahar H. El-Etr ¹ *, Jeffrey J. Margolis ² , Denise Monack ² , Richard A. Robison ³ , Marissa Cohen ³
4	Emily Moore ³ and Amy Rasley ¹
5	
6	Biosciences and Biotechnology Division, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, Livermore
7	CA 94550, USA ¹ . Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Stanford University Medical
8	School, Stanford, CA 94305 ² , USA. Department of Microbiology and Molecular Biology,
9	Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84602, USA ³ .
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21	* Corresponding Author: Sahar H. El-Etr, Biosciences and Biotechnology Division, Lawrence
22	Livermore National Laboratory, Livermore CA 94550, USA. Tel: (925) 423-0383, Fax: (925)
23	422-2282, email: <u>eletr1@llnl.gov</u> .

24 ABSTRACT

Francisella tularensis, the causative agent of the zoonotic disease tularemia, has recently
gained increased attention due to the emergence of tularemia in geographical areas where the
disease has been previously unknown, and the organism's potential as a bioterrorism agent.
Although F. tularensis has an extremely broad host range, the bacterial reservoir in nature has
not been conclusively identified. In this study, the ability of virulent F. tularensis strains to
survive and replicate in the amoeba $A can tha moeba\ castellan ii$ was explored. We observe that A .
castellanii trophozoites rapidly encyst in response to F. tularensis infection and that this rapid
encystment phenotype (REP) is caused by factor(s) secreted by amoebae and/or F. tularensis into
the co-culture media. Further, our results indicate that in contrast to LVS, virulent strains of F .
tularensis can survive in A. castellanii cysts for at least 3 weeks post infection and that induction
of rapid amoeba encystment is essential for survival. In addition, our data indicate that
pathogenic F. tularensis strains block lysosomal fusion in A. castellanii. Taken together, these
data suggest that the interactions between F. tularensis strains and amoeba may play a role in the
environmental persistence of F. tularensis.

INTRODUCTION

Francisella tularensis is the etiological agent of the zoonotic disease tularemia, also known as rabbit fever (35, 53). F. tularensis strains belonging to subspecies tularensis and holarctica, which are both prevalent in the northern hemisphere, cause the majority of reported cases of tularemia (36). Subspecies tularensis is highly contagious, with an infectious dose of 1-10 bacteria and is associated with more severe disease (21). Though described more than a century ago as a disease common among hunters and trappers, tularemia has recently been reported in areas with no previous known risk (20, 25, 31, 42). F. tularensis infects a broad range of wildlife species (36) and a number of arthropods, such as ticks and flies, are known to be vectors (36, 49). Humans are usually infected either through an insect bite or by inhalation of aerosolized bacteria (49). Tularemia can be fatal in up to 30% of untreated cases (36, 49) with the mortality rate reaching 90% in pneumonic infections as described in early studies conducted on vaccinated human volunteers (44-46, 49). Due to its highly infectious nature and its potential for use as a bio-terrorism agent, F. tularensis has been classified as a class A biothreat pathogen by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), mandating human tularemia become a reportable disease since 2000 (15, 37). In addition, the absence of a licensed vaccine for prophylaxis (36) makes understanding the virulence mechanisms used by this pathogen imperative for the development of efficacious measures to prevent or treat human disease.

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Though *F. tularensis* has been isolated from more than 250 wildlife species (21), the acute nature of the infections and the resultant high mortality rates in these hosts indicate the bacterial reservoir(s) in nature have yet to be identified. Tularemia outbreaks involving subspecies *holarctica* have often been linked to water sources (6, 40) and a positive PCR field

test was reported for Francisella during such an outbreak in Norway (5). Abd et al. reported that the F. tularensis live vaccine strain (LVS) is able to survive and replicate in the amoeba Acanthamoeba castellanii (1), suggesting a potential link between amoeba-Francisella interactions and environmental persistence. A. castellanii, a free living environmental amoeba, is known to serve as a reservoir for a number of pathogenic microorganisms (24). However, to date, interactions of virulent F. tularensis subspecies tularensis strains with amoebae have not been documented. The ability of several human intracellular pathogens, including Legionella pneumophila and Mycobacterium avium to infect and survive within amoebae has been well characterized (10, 12). In addition to playing a role in environmental survival and dissemination, growth in A. castellanii has been shown to enhance the ability of L. pneumophila and M. avium to survive and replicate in host macrophages (10, 12) and to enhance the virulence of both species in mice (7, 12). Since F. tularensis species are facultative intracellular pathogens that primarily survive in macrophages, probing the Francisella-amoeba interaction may provide insights into Francisella pathogenesis as well as environmental survival. In this study we investigated the ability of virulent type A strains of F. tularensis to survive in A. castellanii with a focus on understanding the role of Francisella-amoeba interactions in environmental persistence.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

94	Strains and growth conditions. <i>F. tularensis</i> subsp. <i>holarctica</i> strain LVS (LVS) and <i>F</i> .
95	tularensis subsp. novicida strain U112 (novicida) were obtained from the CDC. F. tularensis
96	subsp. tularensis strain Schu S4 (Schu S4) was obtained from the Rocky Mountain Laboratories,
97	MT. F. tularensis subsp. tularensis clinical strains 1 through 10 were obtained from the
98	Departments of Public Health in Utah and New Mexico (Table 1.). All F. tularensis strains used
99	in this study were grown on modified Mueller Hinton agar (Difco) supplemented with 0.025%
100	ferric pyrophosphate (Sigma), 0.02% IsoVitaleX (Becton Dickinson), 0.1% glucose and 0.025%
101	calf serum (Invitrogen-Gibco) at 37°C with 5% CO2, or modified Mueller-Hinton broth
102	(supplemented as described above) with aeration at 37°C.
103	Cell lines and culture conditions. A. castellanii (ATCC 30234) were grown axenically in PYG
104	broth (12) to 90% confluency at 23°C in the dark in 75 cm ² tissue culture flasks (Falcon). The
105	amoebae were harvested before use by rapping the flask sharply to bring them into suspension
106	and the number of viable cells was determined as described previously (12). To induce Amoeba
107	encystment, A. castellanii were suspended in High Salt Buffer (HS) for 3 days as described
108	previously (4, 33).
109	Entry and adherence assays. A. castellanii entry and adherence assays were carried out as
110	described previously (10, 13) in 24-well tissue culture plates (Costar). Briefly, A. castellanii
111	were seeded into plates at a concentration of 2 X 10 ⁵ cells per well and allowed to adhere
112	overnight at 23°C. The Amoebae were washed with HS buffer (4) and incubated in 1 ml of HS
113	buffer for 1 hr at 37°C with 5% CO ₂ prior to infection. F. tularensis overnight cultures were
114	added to amoeba trophozoites at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10. After co-incubation for
115	30 min, the cells were washed once and incubated in HS buffer plus 100µg gentamicin per ml for

2 hr at 37°C and 5% CO₂. The amoebae were then washed once to remove gentamicin and lysed by incubation in 1% saponin for 5 min (Sigma) followed by vigorous pipetting. Dilutions were plated on supplemented Mueller Hinton agar to determine viable colony forming unit (CFU) counts. Adherence assays were carried out in a similar manner except that after the amoeba were infected with the bacteria for 30 minutes, they were immediately washed 3 times with HS buffer prior to lysis. Percent entry was calculated as follows: (CFU_{intracellular}/ CFU_{Inoculum}) X 100. Saponin (1%) had no effect on the viability of F. tularensis strains and all strains used displayed comparable levels of killing by gentamicin. Intracellular survival assays. Intracellular survival assays were carried out in a manner similar to that of the entry assays with the following modifications: after gentamicin treatment, fresh HS buffer was added and the amoebae were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO₂, lysed and plated at the indicated times post infection. Survival is expressed as the percentage of CFU present intracellularly at each time point (T_x) compared to time zero (2.5 hr), i.e. percent survival= (CFU T_x / CFU T_0) X 100. **Long-term survival assays.** Amoebae were infected with F. tularensis strains in 6-well plates (Costar) as described above. After gentamic in treatment and washing, 3 ml of fresh HS buffer were added to each well and the plates incubated at 37°C with 5% CO₂ for up to 3 weeks. To recover bacteria, plates were spun down for 5 min at 100 X g and the HS buffer in each well was replaced with 3 ml PYG medium supplemented with IsoVitaleX. The plates were re-incubated at 37°C with 5% CO₂ until the wells became turbid or for 72 hr (whichever occurred first). The cultures were then plated on Mueller Hinton agar and samples were gram-stained to confirm presence of F. tularensis. To inhibit amoeba encystment, A. castellanii trophozoites were treated with 25µg/ml cycloheximide concurrently with gentamicin treatment for 2 hr then washed before

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139 addition of HS buffer. To inhibit amoeba excystment, A. castellanii cysts were treated with 140 25µg/ml cycloheximide in HS buffer for 1 hr prior to addition of PYG medium for bacterial 141 recovery. Cytotoxicity assays. A. castellanii were seeded in 96-well plates at a concentration of 5 X 10⁴ 142 143 cells per well and allowed to adhere overnight at 23°C. The medium was replaced with HS buffer 144 and the amoebae were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO₂ for 1 hour prior to infection. F. tularensis 145 overnight cultures were added to cells at MOIs of 10. After co-incubation for 1 hr at 37°C and 146 5% CO₂, the medium was replaced with fresh HS buffer. Cell death was quantified 147 colorimetrically using the Cyto-Tox96 lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) release kit (Promega) 148 according to the manufacturer's recommendations. 149 Fractionation and HPLC analyses. Amoebae-Francisella co-cultures were collected at 6 hr 150 post infection, size-fractionated and concentrated using Amplicon filters (Millipore) with 100 151 kD, 30 kD and 3 kD pore sizes sequentially. Twenty-five ml aliquots of F. tularensis- A. 152 castellanii co-culture media were loaded into the largest pore sized filter and centrifuged. The 153 eluate was then loaded into the smaller pore sized filter and the sequence was repeated until the 154 last eluate was filtered through the smallest pore size filter. Centrifugation was done at 740 X g 155 for 5-60 min according to the manufacturer's instructions. Total protein concentrations were 156 determined separately for each eluted fraction. 150 and 250 µg of total protein from each fraction 157 were then diluted with running buffer and loaded separately on SuperDex 200 10/300 high-158 pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) columns (GE Healthcare) and sub-fractioned according 159 to the manufacturer's recommendations. The sub-fractions were either concentrated or diluted 160 with PBS to 1 ml final volumes.

Protein Identification. The proteins present in *F. tularensis-Amoeba* co-culture sub-fractions

were identified commercially by ProtTech, Inc. (Norristown, PA) using Nano LC-MS/MS peptide sequencing technology. The Proteins were first denatured by addition of 8M urea followed by reduction of the Cys residues in the solution with 20mM dithiothreitol (DTT) and alkylated with 20mM iodoacetamide. The samples were then diluted to 2M urea with 100mM ammonium bicarbonate (pH 8.5) and the proteins digested by addition of sequencing-grade modified trypsin (Promega, Madison, WI). The resulting peptide mixture was desalted with a PepClean spin column ((Pierce, Rockford, IL), and analyzed using a LC-MS/MS system, in which an HPLC reverse phase C18 column with a 75 micrometer inner diameter was on-line coupled with an ion trap mass spectrometer (Thermo, Palo Alto, CA). The mass spectrometric data acquired from LC-MS/MS analyses were used to search against the recent Non-Redundant Protein Database from GenBank (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) using ProtTech's ProtQuest software package. Except where specified, all other chemicals used were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). Microscopy. To evaluate amoebae encystment, A. castellanii were infected with overnight cultures of F. tularensis strains at an MOI of 20 in triplicate. The infection was allowed to proceed for 2 hours and the infected amoebae were examined using a Nikon TE300 light microscope with differential interference contrast options, attached to a digital screen. The morphology of the infected amoebae were noted and quantified by counting the number of amoebae trophozoites and cysts present in three random fields per infected well. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was used to examine the ultrastructure of A. castellanii infected with F. tularensis strains. For TEM, A. castellanii were infected at an MOI of 10 for 10 min at 37°C with 5% CO₂, washed twice with HS buffer and incubated in fresh HS buffer at 37°C and 5% CO₂. After incubation for the indicated durations, the amoebae were suspended in medium with a

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rubber policeman, pelleted by centrifugation for 2 minutes at 740 X g at 25°C, fixed and prepared for electron microscopy as previously described (12, 19). To track endosomal vacuoles, A. castellanii trophozoites were pre-loaded with 10nm SPI-Mark colloidal gold unconjugated particles (SPI Supplies) overnight before infection. The samples were suspended in 2% glutaraldehyde for 1 hr, treated with 1% OsO₄ for 2 hr and then postfixed with 0.5% uranyl acetate at 4°C overnight. The cells were embedded and sectioned as described previously (19). Immunofluorescent microscopy (IF) was performed as described previously (18). Briefly, A. castellanii lysosomes were preloaded with LysoTracker red DND-99 (Invitrogen-Molecular Probes) for 30 min before infection, infected for different durations then washed with HS buffer and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in 100mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). The amoebae were permeabilized with 95% ethanol, blocked with 3% BSA, and stained with a chicken anti-F. tularensis polyclonal antibody. To stain infected mature amoebae cysts, the cysts were washed with high salt buffer and centrifuged onto slides using a Cytospin centrifuge (Thermo Fisher) for 3 min at 1500 X g, fixed for 30 min with 4% paraformaldehyde, then permeabilized for 30-60 min with 95% ethanol. The amoebae were visualized by fluorescent microscopy using a Zeiss AxioVert microscope after staining with Alexa Fluor-coupled secondary antibodies (Invitrogen-Molecular Probes). Z-stacks of slices (1-µm thick) were captured using Zeiss Axiovision software and reconstructed 3D images were assembled by use of Volocity software (version 5.1; Perkin Elmer- Improvision). Statistical analyses. Mean and standard deviation were calculated from triplicate samples for representative experiments. All experiments were repeated at least three times, unless otherwise noted. Significance was determined by analysis of variance using the paired Student t test. P values of <0.05 were considered significant.

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208 RESULTS

209	F. tularensis strains enter and replicate in A. castellanii with different efficiencies. To
210	determine if pathogenic F. tularensis strains enter and survive in A. castellanii, we infected
211	amoebae with 10 clinical isolates of F. tularensis subsp. tularensis strains chosen from
212	geographically and temporally separate tularemia outbreaks (Ft 1-10, Table 1) and the laboratory
213	strain F. tularensis subsp. tularensis Schu S4 (Schu S4). For comparison purposes, we also
214	infected A. castellanii with the commonly used laboratory strains F. tularensis subsp. novicida
215	(novicida) and F. tularensis subsp. holarctica strain LVS. Our results demonstrate that F.
216	tularensis strains associate with, enter and survive in A. castellanii with varying efficiencies (Fig.
217	1). LVS was significantly less efficient at adherence, entry and survival in A. castellanii
218	compared with the other strains tested ($P \le 0.02$). We therefore chose to represent infection
219	experiments relative to LVS. F. tularensis strains varied in their ability to adhere to A.
220	castellanii with the least efficient strains, Ft-4 and Ft-9, adhering at a rate 1.5 - 2 times higher
221	than LVS (P = 0.05) and the most efficient strains, Ft-1 and Ft-2, adhering at a rate 7 - 10 times
222	higher than LVS (P = 0.02) (Fig. 1A). With the exception of strains Ft-4 and Ft-7 which entered
223	at rates comparable to LVS, all the strains tested consistently entered A. castellanii at a rate 5 -
224	50 times higher than LVS ($P \le 0.05$) (Fig. 1B). We also examined the ability of <i>F. tularensis</i>
225	strains to survive and replicate in A. castellanii at 24 hours post infection (Fig. 1C). For LVS
226	only half of the CFU at time zero (2.5 hr) were recovered after 24 hours. This data is
227	significantly different from the data described by Abd et al. (1) and can be attributed to their use
228	of a rich medium which we observed allowed for replication of LVS extracellularly (Fig. 2A).
229	Strains Ft-4 and Ft-6 were recovered at a similar rate as LVS, whereas the rest of the strains
230	varied widely in their ability to survive and replicate. Ft-3, Ft-9 and Ft-2 were recovered at a rate

1.2 - 1.5 times higher than LVS after 24 hr (P = 0.05). Ft-5, Ft-8, Ft-10, Schu S4 and novicida were recovered at a rate 2 - 5 times higher (P = 0.02) and Ft-1 and Ft-7 were recovered at a rate 7 - 8 times higher than LVS after 24 hr (P = 0.01). With the exception of Ft-7, all other strains tested correlated in their ability to attach, enter and survive in A. castellanii. Though Ft-7 showed a relatively high rate of immediate attachment to the amoebae, the CFU recovered at time zero were consistently low. Interestingly, by 24 hr post infection, Ft-7 CFU were approximately 7 times higher than the CFU recovered at time zero. These data suggest that either Ft-7 enters at a low rate but replicates very efficiently or that the strain is killed early in the infection but is able to recover and replicate after a lag phase. We were unable to assess intracellular growth past 24 hr by CFU counts since the majority of the amoebae were encysted by then and were extremely resistant to lysis, both chemical and mechanical, consistent with previous reports (28-30). Pathogenic F. tularensis strains are present in spacious vacuoles at 30 min post-infection. To characterize the ultrastructure of pathogenic F. tularensis vacuoles in amoeba, we infected A. castellanii trophozoites with LVS, novicida, Schu S4 and Ft-1 and examined them by TEM. By 30 min post infection the majority of vacuoles containing novicida, Schu S4 and Ft-1 were significantly more spacious ($P \le 0.02$) (Fig. 3A and Table 2) than vacuoles containing LVS. To determine if F. tularensis strains disrupt the endosomal pathway, we preloaded amoeba lysosomes with nanogold particles prior to bacterial infection, which allowed us to assess the frequency of lysosomal fusion (Fig. 3B). We were able to confirm a statistically significant correlation between tight vacuole formation and the presence of nanogold particles and we found that by 2 hours post infection, 82% of bacterial tight vacuoles formed by all four strains colocalized with nanogold particles (P = 0.02) (Table 2). This number rose to 88% at 24 hours post infection (P = 0.01), suggesting that tight vacuoles are lysosomal in nature while spacious ones

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are not. At 24 hours post infection, over 90% of amoeba infected with novicida, Schu S4 and Ft-254 255 1 contained bacteria present in spacious vacuoles compared to 57% of amoeba infected with 256 LVS (Table 2). By this stage the majority of A. castellanii infected with novicida, Schu S4 and 257 Ft-1 were encysted and intact bacteria were observed within the double wall layers of the 258 amoebae cysts. An "early" or "young" cyst containing bacteria is shown in Fig. 3C. 259 Trophozoites still present at this point contained bacteria in spacious vacuoles, and multiple 260 vacuoles containing bacteria were observed within the same trophozoite (Fig. 3D). The bacterial 261 structure appears typical to that described for other pleiomorphic bacteria. Similar to what has 262 been previously described with LVS, novicida, Schu S4 and Ft-1 recruit mitochondria and 263 membrane structures suggestive of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) to the bacterial vacuoles 264 (Fig. 3E), which display intact phoagosomal membranes (Fig. 3F). 265 LVS co-localizes with the lysosomal marker LysoTracker Red. To confirm our observations 266 that LVS containing tight vacuoles are lysosomal in nature, we pre-loaded amoeba lysosomes 267 with the lysosomal marker LysoTracker red and infected them with LVS and novicida strains 268 expressing GFP. After 30 min post infection, 26% of novicida colocalized with LysoTracker red 269 compared to 48% of LVS (P = 0.02) (Fig. 4A and Table 2). By 2 hr post infection, 43% of 270 novicida colocalized with LysoTracker red compared with 89% of LVS (P = 0.01) (Table 2). 271 These data confirm that LVS reside predominantly in lysosomal vacuoles while novicida appears 272 able to block lysosomal fusion in A. castellanii. 273 Novicida is present in A. castellanii cysts after 7 days post-infection. To confirm that the 274 structures observed by TEM within the double walls of amoeba cysts are bacteria, we infected A. 275 castellanii with either LVS and novicida or LVS and novicida strains expressing GFP, and incubated them for various times post infection. At the indicated time points, amoeba cysts were 276

either fixed and visualized directly (GFP expressing strains) or stained with a chicken anti-F. tularensis polyclonal antibody prior to processing for IF and visualization. A. castellanii cysts stained positive for novicida but not LVS after 24 hr and 7 days post infection (Fig.5). A. castellanii cysts infected with GFP-expressing novicida were only positive for novicida after 24 hours (data not shown). Since GFP is not expressed at 7 days post-infection, the novicida present in A. castellanii cysts may either have lost the plasmid or may be metabolically inactive. Recovery of viable F. tularensis strains from A. castellanii cysts 21 days post-infection. Demonstrating the presence of viable F. tularensis in A. castellanii cysts by intracellular growth assays was not possible due to increased resistance of amoeba cysts to lysis as previously reported (28-30). To circumvent this problem, we designed an experiment based on our observations that all the F. tularensis strains we tested replicate vigorously in PYG medium (Fig. 2A) but not in HS buffer (data not shown). This allowed us to determine whether virulent F. tularensis strains were able to survive longer than 24 hours in A. castellanii. A. castellanii trophozoites were infected with novicida, LVS, Schu S4, Ft-1 and Ft-7. After gentamicin treatment, fresh HS buffer was added to each well and the amoebae were allowed to incubate for varying durations. Weekly, infected cysts were spun down and the buffer replaced with PYG. Presence of the rich PYG medium enabled the amoebae to excyst and the bacteria present in the cysts to be released into the medium where they could replicate. As shown in Table 3, viable novicida, Ft-1 and Ft-7 were recovered up to three weeks post infection. We observed about 80% of the amoeba excysted after 24 hr of the addition PYG broth, consistent with previous data describing the kinetics of A. castellanii excystment (28). We did not observe bacterial turbidity in the infected amoebae wells, nor were we able to recover bacterial CFUs before 36-48 hr after replacement of HS buffer with PYG. This data suggests that F. tularensis were present

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intracellularly and not just associated with the outer surface of the cysts. To confirm these results, we blocked infected amoeba excystment in F. tularensis-infected cysts using cycloheximide as previously described (9), and did not recover any bacteria upon addition of PYG (Table 3). Not unexpectedly, we were only able to recover viable LVS up to 3 days post infection, consistent with our CFU assays demonstrating that the LVS strain is attenuated in amoeba infections. F. t. novicida and virulent F. tularensis strains induce the rapid encystment of A. castellanii. In contrast to infection with LVS (Fig. 6B), our initial observations of A. castellanii infected with novicida and Schu S4 showed that a large number of amoebae trophozoites began encysting within 2 hours of infection (Fig. 6C and E). Although A. castellanii is known to encyst in response to starvation, desiccation and other adverse environmental conditions (24) and can be induced to artificially encyst after ~3 days in the laboratory artificially by growth in HS buffer (4) (also known as "encystment buffer") (33), the presence of novicida and Schu S4 rapidly accelerated this natural phenomenon. The Rapid Encystment Phenotype (REP) we observed also occurred in response to F. tularensis strains even when the amoebae were grown xenically in presence of heat killed E. coli as a food source as previously described (48). In addition, REP was not associated with an increase in cytotoxicity, confirming that the amoebae were encysted and not dead (data not shown). We investigated the ability of F. tularensis clinical isolates (Ft 1-10) to cause the rapid encystment of A. castellanii trophozoites compared with novicida, LVS and Schu S4. F. tularensis clinical isolates varied in their ability to cause REP (Fig. 6). Further, Ft-3 (Fig. 6D), Ft-4 and Ft-9 did not cause REP while Schu (Fig. 6E), Ft-2 (Fig. 6F), Ft-8 (Fig. 6G) and Ft-10 (Fig. 6H) caused the highest REP levels. Interestingly, out of the 10 clinical

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strains tested, 5 strains (50%) were able to induce a significantly higher level of A. castellanii

encystment compared with uninfected trophozoites or trophozoites infected with LVS ($P \le 0.03$) (Fig. 7). Novicida however, caused the highest levels of REP observed, a phenomenon that may be explained by the rapid growth of novicida compared to type A F. tularensis strains. It is interesting to note that the same 5 strains that induced higher levels of encystment (Ft-1, Ft-2, Ft-7, Ft-8 and Ft-10), were associated with higher rates of attachment, entry and survival in A. castellanii than all other strains tested. A protein fraction isolated from F. tularensis- A. castellanii co-cultures is responsible for the rapid encystment of A. castellanii. To investigate whether the rapid amoebae encystment we observed was a result of direct contact between the bacterium and amoeba or mediated by soluble factor(s), we used a transwell culture system to physically separate the amoebae monolayer from the bacteria by using an insert with a 0.2µm filter. The inability of F. tularensis strains to pass through the filter was confirmed by plating for viable CFUs (data not shown). In the absence of cell-cell contact using the transwell system, A. castellanii trophozoites still induced REP in response to the same bacterial strains (data not shown). These data suggest that REP may be caused by factor(s) secreted by F. tularensis strains in response to A. castellanii and/or factor(s) secreted by A. castellanii in response to bacterial infection. Since spent bacterial culture media did not confer REP (data not shown), we concluded that cross-talk occurring between F. tularensis and A. castellanii is necessary for induction of the encystment phenotype. To determine whether the soluble factors in REP were proteinaceous in nature, bacteria-amoeba co-cultures were boiled or subjected to a 30 min treatment with proteinase K. Both of these treatments resulted in abrogation of REP (data not shown) suggesting the factor(s) responsible are proteins. The co-culture media from A. castellanii infected with LVS, novicida, Schu S4, Ft-1, Ft-2, Ft-7 and Ft-8 were then fractionated and analyzed by HPLC. Four different size fractions

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346 ranging from $\ge 100 \text{kD}$, $< 100 \text{kD} \ge 30 \text{kD}$, $< 30 \text{kD} \ge 38 \text{kD}$ to < 38 kD were obtained for each strain. 347 Addition of these 4 fractions separately to naïve A. castellanii trophozoites demonstrated that the 348 ≥3kD (<30kD) fractions from novicida, Schu S4, Ft-1, Ft-7 and Ft-8 infections induce REP (Fig. 349 8). The <100kD (>30kD) fraction from novicida was also able to confer REP suggesting there 350 may be slight size differences between the factor(s) produced by type A strains and novicida. 351 Addition of the ≥3kD (and <30kD) fraction from the LVS- A. castellanii co-culture did not result 352 in REP and resembled cultures treated with other fractions or medium alone. 353 REP fractions from novicida and Schu S4 contain proteins that mediate A. castellanii 354 **encystment.** To identify the proteins that may be responsible for the observed REP, we had the 355 REP fractions from novicida and Schu S4 analyzed commercially by LC-MS/MS. In parallel, we 356 also analyzed fractions of the same size isolated from uninfected A. catellanii trophozoites, A. 357 castellanii cysts and laboratory-grown novicida. Interestingly, we identified the same proteins in 358 REP fractions from novicida and Schu S4. LC-MS/MS analyses revealed 4 unique A. castellanii 359 proteins that were only present in the A. castellanii-F. tularensis REP fraction and one protein 360 (subtilisin-like serine proteinase) that was present in both the REP fraction and the A. castellanii 361 cyst fraction (Table 5). We were able to infer that the subtilisin serine proteinase is present in the 362 REP fractions at four times the amount it was present in the A. castellanii cyst fraction because 363 the number of peptides sequenced by LC-MS/MS from each protein can be used as an indication 364 for relative abundance of proteins in a sample. This serine proteinase shows 97% identity and 365 98% homology at the C-terminal region to a previously identified subtilisin family serine 366 proteinase that has recently been shown to mediate the encystation of A. castellanii (33, 34). 367 Interestingly, the REP fraction also contained Ubiquitin and an Ubiquitin fusion protein. The 368 proteasome/ Ubiquitin system has been shown be involved in the encystment of amoeba, a

process requiring extensive protein degradation (22). The other 2 proteins identified in the fractions were Actin and the α-chain of Profilin II. Profilin is an actin-binding protein involved in the dynamic turnover and restructuring of the actin cytoskeleton (27, 51). The protein is normally found in association with monomeric actin in Acanathamoeba (27). We also identified a large protein, which is predicted to be a chaperone belonging to the DnaK/HSP 70 family. Considering that the size of this protein is larger that 30 kD, it is unlikely that it is actually secreted, most probably it was released into the medium as a result of amoeba lysis during encystment. In addition to A. castellanii proteins, we also identified 7 F. tularensis proteins that were only present in the REP fraction and not in laboratory grown F. tularensis. Since most of these genes are annotated in the databases as "hypothetical proteins", we are not able to speculate on their function. We are currently constructing mutations in the genes encoding these proteins and expressing them in vitro to identify their role in inducing amoeba encystment.

DISCUSSION

Francisella tularensis was first identified as the cause of a plague-like outbreak in ground squirrels in 1911(32). There has been a rising interest in F. tularensis (49) in recent years, due in a large part to the recognition of F. tularensis as a potential bioterrorism agent (47). F. tularensis exhibits an extremely broad host range, and the bacterium is known to infect hundreds of wildlife species (41), which facilitates human infections. However, the acute nature of the infections in vertebrate and invertebrate hosts identified so far suggests that the reservoir(s) of F. tularensis in the environment have not been identified (36). Previous studies have correlated tularemia outbreaks with aquatic environments (5, 6) and suggested that environmental amoebae may serve as bacterial reservoirs in nature (40). So far, only two such studies examined the survival of F. tularensis strains in the amoeba Acanthamoeba castellanii (1, 43). Though these studies concluded that F. tularensis LVS and novicida are able to survive in A. castellanii for weeks post-infection, the authors used a rich medium that allowed for the replication of the bacteria extracellularly for all survival experiments, making it impossible to discern true longterm intracellular survival. In addition, the authors did not characterize the interaction of virulent F. tularensis strains with amoeba, leaving unanswered the question of whether amoebae can serve as environmental reservoirs for *F. tularensis* strains pathogenic for humans.

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In the present study, we conducted a detailed characterization of the interaction of multiple *F. tularensis* strains with the amoeba *A. castellanii*, and have demonstrated for the first time, the ability of fully virulent strains to enter and survive in amoeba. To ensure that we were able to quantify long-term survival without confounding factors, all our experiments were performed in a high salt buffer that supports the survival of *A. castellanii* but does not allow for

the growth of F. tularensis (data not shown). In addition to the most commonly used laboratory strains, LVS, Schu S4 and novicida, the interaction of 10 clinical strains, isolated from human, rodent and lagomorph outbreaks in New Mexico and Utah were also examined. To maximize our chances of obtaining disparate isolates, we chose strains that were isolated from geographically separate outbreaks over a 10-year period. Since their isolation, these strains have not been manipulated in the laboratory, and have remained largely uncharacterized. Our results demonstrate, for the first time that fully virulent F. tularensis strains can associate with and enter A. castellanii, albeit with disparate efficiencies. Further, we have demonstrated that long-term survival of pathogenic F. tularensis isolates in amoeba is dependent on induction of amoeba encystment. Not surprisingly, we observed that LVS is the least efficient at both association and entry, consistent with the non-pathogenic nature of this isolate. However, F. tularensis strains in general replicated much less in A. castellanii than other amoeba-resistant bacteria such as M. avium and L. pneumophila (10, 11). The variation in the ability of clinical F. tularensis strains to associate with and survive in A. castellanii suggests that more than one environmental host may exist for *F. tularensis*

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To assess downstream events after bacterial entry, we examined the ultrastructure of *F*. *tularensis* infected amoeba by TEM. We observed that *F. tularensis* strains were associated with two types of bacterial vacuoles, tight vacuoles, which directly conform to the bacterial shape, and spacious vacuoles, usually associated with multiple bacteria. Quantification of the type of bacterial vacuoles associated with each strain revealed that LVS was enclosed in tight vacuoles at a rate four times higher than novicida, Schu and Ft-1. In addition, though we were unable to calculate the frequency of lysosomal fusion with individual strains due to the low numbers of

trophozoites present after 24 hours of infection, we found that 88% of tight vacuoles colocalized with nanogold particles. These data suggest that spacious vacuoles may not be lysosomal in nature and that enclosure within these vacuoles may provide a survival advantage to novicida, Schu and Ft-1. This would be similar to what has been described for survival of *Salmonella* in macrophages (26). We were able to calculate the frequency of lysosomal fusion using IF and found that by 2 hr post infection 89% of LVS vacuoles colocalize with lysosomes compared to 43% of novicida vacuoles, consistent with our TEM observations.

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Even though the majority of A. castellanii trophozoites encyst within 24 hours after infection, we have demonstrated for the first time the ability of virulent F. tularensis strains to survive in the amoebal cysts for up to three weeks post infection. Surprisingly, viable Schu S4 was only recovered up to two weeks post infection. This observation may be explained by the fact that the Schu S4 strain has been propagated under laboratory conditions for almost 70 years since its initial isolation from a clinical case (8, 16), and some loss of virulence is to be expected. This extended propagation may account for the inability of Schu S4 to survive past two weeks compared with the other type A strains (e.g. Ft-1 and Ft-7) that have been only minimally manipulated in the laboratory. Unlike Mycobacterium and Legionella spp., the F. tularensis strains examined do not replicate to a high degree in A. castellanii cysts but appear to survive by inducing amoeba encystment. It is still possible that these F. tularensis strains may indeed grow to large numbers in amoebae trophozoites when abundant nutrients are present, and in fact many amoeba-resistant microorganism are known to be endosymbiotic or lytic in a given amoeba depending on environmental conditions (23, 24). Another plausible hypothesis is that amoebaresistant microorganisms have developed multiple approaches to environmental survival. Our

data using the eukaryotic protein synthesis inhibitor, cycloheximide, suggest that the ability to cause amoeba encystment is necessary for the survival of the F. tularensis strains tested in A. castellanii. Alternatively, cycloheximide may be acting by preventing the synthesis of an amoebal protein or by blocking a protein-mediated process the bacteria needs to survive upon internalization. Considering the drought resistance and hardiness of amoeba cysts, cyst formation could enable intracellular F. tularensis to survive desiccation and food shortage in the environment. F. tularensis could then be transmitted orally to animals that drink from water contaminated with amoeba cysts. Infected animals would then complete the environmental cycle by fecal shedding of Francisella in or near aquatic environments, which are prime amoeba habitats (2, 3). Though amoeba encystment in response to bacterial infection has been reported previously, this usually occurs in presence of a high bacteria to amoeba ratio (52). To explore the cause of the rapid encystment of A. castellanii trophozoites in response to F. tularensis infection, we verified that the amoebae were actually encysted and not dead by conducting cytotoxicity assays comparing infected and uninfected A. castellanii (data not shown). We also confirmed that the amoebae were not simply encysting in response to overwhelming numbers of bacteria or lack of nutrients, by reducing the MOI of infection and/ or growing the amoeba xenically in presence of heat killed E. coli as a food source (48). At MOIs of 1 and 5 we were not able to recover viable organisms following F. tularensis infections but we still obtained high levels of amoeba encystment. Interestingly, it has been observed that A. castellanii does not usually undergo encystment in response to low levels of bacterial replication (14, 54) (Ling Yan, personal communication). This data suggests that the encystment was specific to F. tularensis and not simply due to the presence of high numbers of bacteria or low nutrient levels. In addition, using a transwell culture system, we demonstrated that encystment does not require

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direct bacteria-cell contact, as REP still occurred even though the bacteria were physically separated from the amoeba trophozoites.

Quantification of encystment showed that *F. tularensis* strains varied in their ability to cause REP. Novicida showed the highest level of REP, most likely because of its rapid rate of growth compared to LVS and virulent *F. tularensis* strains. Along with novicida, Schu S4, Ft-1, Ft-2, Ft-7, Ft-8 and Ft-10 caused very high rates of REP, while LVS, Ft-3, Ft-4 and Ft-6 did not. Since all virulent *F. tularensis* strains and LVS showed similar rates of growth, the failure of LVS, Ft-3, Ft-4 and Ft-6 to induce rapid encystment in amoeba cannot be attributed to the number of CFU present. It is interesting to note that *F. tularensis* strains causing the highest levels of encystment were also the strains showing the highest levels of attachment, entry and replication in *A. castellanii*.

Induction of REP appears to involve proteins produced as a result of *F. tularensis-A*. *castellanii* cross-talk. Our experiments show that addition of co-culture media from *A. castellanii* and *F. tularensis* strains that cause REP confer REP on naïve amoeba trophozoites while spent culture media from the same *F. tularensis* strains alone does not. These data also suggest that soluble factor(s) secreted into the co-culture medium by the bacteria and/or the amoeba mediate the phenotype. Consequently, we conducted some preliminary analyses of the co-culture media in order to narrow down the size and nature of the fraction responsible for inducing the phenotype. We found factors responsible for inducing encystment to be between 3-30 kD and concluded that the active component(s) of the fraction that induce REP are likely to be protein(s) as boiling or proteinase K treatment abrogated the activity of the fraction as evidenced by the

loss of REP. LC-MS/MS analyses of the REP-inducing fraction revealed that the same proteins are present in REP-inducing fractions from novicida and Ft-1. We identified a 16.5 kD subtilisinlike serine proteinase that was present in REP fractions at 4 times the quantity it was present in media from A. castellanii cysts. This subtilisin-like serine proteinase shows 97% identity and 98% homology at the C-terminus containing the peptidase S8 region (pfam0082) to a previously identified 33 kD Encystment-Mediating Serine Proteinase (EMSP) that has recently been shown to mediate the encystation of A. castellanii (33, 34). This suggests that our protein may be a cleavage product of EMSP. Subtilases have been associated with autophagosomes (39, 50) and EMSP si-RNA-treated A. castellanii show defects in substance degradation and autophagy maturation during encystation (34). The abundance of EMSP-like protein in the REP fraction suggests autophagy may be activated in A. castellanii in response to F. tularensis infection. The REP fraction also contained Ubiquitin and a Ubiquitin fusion protein. The proteasome/ Ubiquitin system is responsible for degradation of proteins (22, 38). It is likely that this system is used to degrade proteins present in trophozoites that will not be required in the emerging cysts. The other 2 proteins identified in the fractions were Actin and the α -chain of Profilin II. Profilin is an actin-binding protein involved in the dynamic turnover and restructuring of the actin cytoskeleton (27, 51). This protein is normally found in association with monomeric actin in Acanathamoeba (27). The presence of both of these proteins in the REP fraction is likely due to the cytoskeletal rearrangements that occur upon encystment and not due to their secretion. In addition to A. castellanii proteins, we also identified seven F. tularensis proteins that

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were only present in the REP-inducing fraction and not in the media of laboratory grown F. tularensis. We are currently characterizing these proteins to identify the role they play in

induction of amoeba encystment. Previous studies have shown that interactions of a number of intracellular bacterial pathogens with amoebae result in an enhancement in the pathogen's ability to enter and survive in mammalian cells (7, 11, 12). Since it is likely that bacteria-amoebae cross talk results in amoeba encystment, this process could also result in the up-regulation of bacterial virulence factors that may be required for subsequent entry and survival in mammalian cells in addition to enhancing the ability of *F. tularensis* to persist in the environment.

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740 FIGURE LEGENDS

FIG. 1. Cell association (A), entry (B) and intracellular survival (C) of *F. tularensis* strains in *A. castellanii*. Cell association (A) and entry of LVS (B) were arbitrarily set at 1. The intracellular survival rate (C) is represented as the ratio of CFU recovered at 24 hr to those recovered at time zero for each strain. Data points and error bars represent the means and standard deviations, respectively, of assays done in triplicate from representative experiments.

746 (** $P \le 0.02$ and* $P \le 0.05$)

FIG. 2. Growth curves of F. tularensis strains in PYG media (A) and Mueller Hinton broth (B) at OD_{600} over a 24 hr time period. Data points and error bars represent the means and standard deviations, respectively, of assays done in triplicate from a representative experiment.

FIG. 3. Transmission electron micrographs of A. castellanii infected with F. tularensis strains. (A) Ft-1 is present in spacious vacuoles while LVS (B) is present in tight vacuoles at 2 hr post infection, long black arrows point to spacious vacuoles and short white arrows to tight vacuoles. (B) LVS tight vacuole fused with nanogold labeled lysosomes at 2 hr post infection, short white arrows point to nanogold particles. (C) Early cyst of A. castellanii containing Schu S4 bacteria at 24 hr post infection. (D) A. castellanii trophozoite with multiple Schu S4 vacuoles at 24 hr post infection. Bacterial vacuoles from (D) enlarged to show mitochondrial and endoplasmic reticulum (white arrows) recruitment to the phagosome (E), and intact phagosomal membranes (F). (b: bacteria, m: mitochondria).

FIG. 4. Immunofluorescence Z-projections of *A. castellanii* trophozoites (A) infected with LVS expressing GFP for 2 hr (a, b and c) and novicida stained with an anti-*F. tularensis* antibody (green) (f, g and h) after 2 hr and 30 min respectively. At 2 hr post infection the majority of LVS (a) colocalizes with LysoTracker red (c) which appears diffuse within the trophozoite (b). The majority of novicida (f) does not colocalize with LysoTracker red (h) which appears localized (g). Enlarged cross-sections of panels (c) and (h) represent trophozoites infected with LVS (d) and novicida (i) respectively. These were rotated by 90° using Volocity software to confirm presence of the bacteria intracellularly (e and J).

FIG. 5. Nomarski DC Z-projections of uninfected *A. castellanii* cysts (e and f) and cysts infected with novicida (a and b) and stained with an anti novicida antibody (b and f). An enlarged cross-section of panels (b and f) was rotated by 90° using Volocity software to confirm presence (d) or absence (h) of intracellular bacteria.

FIG. 6. (A) Rapid encystment of *A. castellanii* in response to infection with virulent *F. tularensis* strains, LVS and novicida. Uninfected *A. castellanii* trophozoites (A). *A. castellanii* trophozoites infected with LVS and Ft-3 (B and D respectively) for 2 hr. *A. castellanii* infected with novicida, Schu, Ft-7, Ft-8 and Ft-10 (C, E, F, G and H respectively) or 2 hr. Arrows point to early cysts and asterisks point to trophozoites.

FIG. 7. Quantification of the encystment of *A. castellanii* at 2 hr post infection with *F. tularensis* strains. Data points and error bars represent the means and standard deviations

respectively of 3 random field counts of assays done in triplicate from representative experiments (** $P \le 0.02$, and * P = 0.05). FIG. 8. Quantification of the encystment of naïve A. castellanii trophozoites, 4 hr after the addition of fractions from F. tularensis- A. castellanii co-cultures. Data points and error bars represent the means and standard deviations respectively of 3 random field counts of assays done in triplicate from representative experiments (* $P \le 0.02$).

811	Strain	Designation	Subtype	Region	Source	Year Isolated
812						
813	LVS	LVS^b	В	Europe	Sheep	1949, 1961
814	Novicida U112	NOV	NA	Utah	Human	1951
815	SCHU S4	$SCHU^c$	A	Ohio	Human lesion	1941
816	70102163	Ft-1	\mathbf{A}^a	Utah	Human Blood	2001
817	79101574	Ft-2	\mathbf{A}^a	Utah	Human	1991
818	1365	Ft-3	\mathbf{A}^a	New Mexico	Human	1997
819	AS1284	Ft-4	\mathbf{A}^a	New Mexico	Rodent	2003
820	79400960	Ft-5	\mathbf{A}^a	Utah	Human	1990
821	80700069	Ft-6	\mathbf{A}^a	Utah	Human lesion	2007
822	80502541	Ft-7	\mathbf{A}^a	Utah	Human lesion	2005
823	1385	Ft-8	\mathbf{A}^a	New Mexico	Rabbit	2001
824	1773a	Ft-9	\mathbf{A}^a	New Mexico	Human	1999
825	AS2058	Ft-10	\mathbf{A}^a	New Mexico	Rabbit	2002
826						

^a Subtyping done using primers in IS100 elements unique to type A strains (Victoria Lao, Patrick Chain and Emilio Garcia, unpublished results).

^b Live Vaccine Strain was produced as a vaccine in 1961 by passaging a virulent *F. t. holarctica* strain isolated in 1949 (17).

^c Laboratory passaged strain.

837	Table 2. Quantification of F. tularensis in Infected A. castellanii.										
838											
839 840	Time	% tight vacuoles ^a			% tight % Lysosomal Fusion ^c - vacuole			Fusion ^c			
841		LVS	NOV	SCHU	Ft-1	fusion ^b $(P)^e$	LVS	NOV	$(P)^f$		
842	30 m	ND^d	ND	ND	ND	ND	48 ± 3	26 ± 2	0.02		
843	2 hr	40 ± 3	10 ± 3	8 ± 2	9 ± 3	$82 \pm 2 \ (0.02)$	89 ± 4	43 ± 3	0.01		
844	24 hr	46 ± 2	9 ± 2	8 ± 3	10 ± 3	88 ± 4 (0.01)	ND	ND	ND		
845											
846		^a Perce	entage o	of tight l	oacterial	vacuoles in c	ells con	taining	at least	one bacterial vacuole. Results are the means	
847	± stan	dard de	viation	s of two	counts	of 50 cells in	differen	nt section	ns of tw	o separate preparations.	
848		^b Co-lo	calizat	ion of n	anogold	particles with	bacteri	ial vacu	oles fro	m all F. tularensis strains processed.	
849	Resul	ts are th	ne mean	ıs ± stan	dard de	viations of two	o counts	s of 50 c	cells cor	ntaining at least one bacterial vacuole in	
850	differ	ent sect	ions of	two sep	arate pr	eparations.					
851		^c Co-lo	ocalizat	ion of L	ysoTrac	cker red with b	oacteria	l vacuol	les conta	aining at least one bacterium by IF. Results	
852	are th	e means	s ± stan	dard de	viations	of two counts	of 25 c	ells fro	m 4 sep	arate preparations.	
853		^d ND:	Not Do	ne, sam	ple too	small.					
854		^e P val	ues ind	icate the	e signifi	cance of fusio	n of <i>F</i> .	tularens	s <i>is</i> tight	vacuoles with nanogold particles.	
855		$^f P$ val	ues ind	icate the	e signifi	cance of co-lo	calizati	on of no	ovicida :	and LVS vacuoles with LysoTracker red.	
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TABLE 3. Survival of *F. tularensis* strains in *A. castellanii*.

866													
867		Time	L	VS	N	OV	SC	HU	Ft	:-1	F	t-7	UI^a
868		(days)	, —										
869			- c	+ c ^b	- c	+ c	- c	+ c	- c	+ c	- c	+ c	- c
870													
871		3	+ c	NG^d	+	NG	+	NG	+	NG	+	NG	NG
872		7	NG	ND^e	+	NG	+	NG	+	NG	+	NG	NG
873		14	NG	ND	+	NG	+	ND	+	ND	+	ND	NG
874		21	NG	ND	+	ND	NG	ND	+	ND	+	ND	NG
875													
876	^a Un	infected	A. casi	tellanii c	control	l .							
877	$^{b}A.$	castellan	iii cysts	s treated	with ((+ c) or	withou	t (- c) 25	5μg/ml	cyclohe	eximide	e prior t	o addition of HS
878	buffer to p	orevent e	excystn	nent.									
879	^c (+)	: Turbidi	ity in e	xperime	ntal w	ells 48-	72 hr at	fter repla	acing b	uffer w	ith rich	media.	F. tularensis grov
880	confirmed	l by plati	ng for	viable C	CFU ar	nd gram	stainin	g. In al	l cases	where t	urbidit	y was o	bserved >10 ⁸
881	CFU/ml w	vere pres	ent.										
882	d NC	6: No gro	owth af	fter repla	acing b	ouffer w	ith rich	mediur	n and p	olating f	or viab	le CFU	
883	^e ND): Not Do	one										
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TABLE 4. Survival of *F. tularensis* strains in *A. castellanii* in the presence and absence of encystment.

Time	SO	CHU	F	-1	NOV		LV	S			
(days)	- c	+ c ^a	-c	+ c	-с	+ c	R	+ R ^l			
3	$+^c$, E^d	NG ^e , NE ^f	+, E	NG, NE	+, E	NG, NE	+	+, E			
8	+, E	NG, NE	+, E	NG, NE	+, E	NG, NE	NG	+, E			
14	+, E	ND^g	+, E	ND	+, E	ND	NG	NG			
-A. castell	anii or Sch	u S4- <i>A. castell</i>	anii co-cul	tures.		e (- R) of the Rl					
c (·	+): Turbidi	ty in experimen	ntal wells 4	-8-72 hr after re	eplacing buf	fer with rich me	dia. F. tular	rensis g			
confirmed by plating for viable CFU and gram staining. In all cases where turbidity was observed >10 ⁸ CFU/ml											
	were present.										
were preser	nt.										
-		50% of A. castel	llanii prese	ent are encysted	l (E).						
$^{d}\mathrm{E}$	E: At least 5		_	-		ing for viable C	FU.				
^d E	E: At least 5		ing buffer	with rich medi	um and plat	ing for viable C	FU.				
d E e N	E: At least 5	wth after replac	ing buffer	with rich medi	um and plat	ing for viable C	FU.				
d E e N	E: At least 5	wth after replac	ing buffer	with rich medi	um and plat	ing for viable C	FU.				
d E e N	E: At least 5	wth after replac	ing buffer	with rich medi	um and plat	ing for viable C	FU.				
d E e N	E: At least 5	wth after replac	ing buffer	with rich medi	um and plat	ing for viable C	FU.				
d E e N	E: At least 5	wth after replac	ing buffer	with rich medi	um and plat	ing for viable C	FU.				
d E e N	E: At least 5	wth after replac	ing buffer	with rich medi	um and plat	ing for viable C	FU.				

TABLE 5: Identification of A. castellanii Proteins in the REP Fraction.

922	Protein	Locus	Size (kD)	No. of Peptides ^a
923	Ubiquitin/	P49634	15.4	4
924	Ubiquitin Fusion Protein	CAA53293	194	4
925	Profilin II, α chain	P19984	21.9	2
926	Actin	P02578	29.8	2
927	Encystation mediating			
928 929	Serine proteinase/ Subtilisin-like Serine	ABY63398	32.1	16
930	Proteinase	AAF91465	16.5	7
931	DnaK molecular chaperone/	AAU94654	37.5	2
933	HSP 70 family protein			
934	^a Number of peptides seq	uenced by N	ano LC-MS	/MS.

^a Number of peptides sequenced by Nano LC-MS/MS.















